

Grade Ten—World History, Culture, and Geography: The Modern World

Global Overview: 1750 CE to the Present

The three-hundred-year period covered by the tenth-grade course saw the intensification of a truly global history as people, products, diseases, knowledge, and ideas spread around the world as never before. Students consider how a modern system of communication and exchange drew peoples of the world into an increasingly complex network of relationships in which Europe and the United States exerted great military and economic power. Looking at the period as a whole, teachers can help their students develop their Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills. The ability to see connections between events and larger social, economic, and political trends may be developed by having students consider the most fundamental changes of the era:

- The intensification of the move toward a global market aided by rapid transportation of goods around the world, powerful international financial institutions, and instantaneous communication
- The emergence of industrial production as the dominant economic force that shaped the world economy and created a related culture of consumption
- Increasing human impact on the natural and physical environment through the growth in world population, especially urban settings where populations engaged in mass consumption through mechanical and chemical developments related to the industrial revolution

- Two distinct waves of imperial expansion and the growth of nation-states as the most common form of political organization
- The application of industrial technology and scientific advancements to the development of mechanized warfare, which drew millions of people into the experience of “total war”
- The emergence of ideas of universal rights for all individuals, regardless of gender, class, religion, or race, which spread around the world.

1750-1917: Revolutions Reshape the World. The eighteenth century witnessed the development of two revolutionary trends that ultimately influenced the world in ways that are still felt today. The first “revolution” was the emergence of industrialization. This revolution facilitated the development of European imperialism in the late nineteenth century. Together, mechanized heavy industry, mass consumption culture, and a global division of labor continue to shape uneven development in the contemporary world. The second revolutionary trend was the political revolutions in North America, Europe, and Latin America. Leaders of all of the revolutions espoused liberal republican ideologies. While realized only partially in each revolution, these ideas spread throughout the world, inspiring reforms and revolutions across the globe.

1914-1945: Global Wars. The period between 1914 and 1945 saw two major world wars, with technological advancements in weaponry that led to the deaths of millions of soldiers and civilians. World War I began in 1914 as a result of

nationalist tensions in Europe and spread quickly across the continent among the European states caught in the web of alliances. During the interwar period, an economic depression swept across the globe. As worldwide agricultural production increased, prices fell, while consumers retained very little purchasing power. Industrialized nations reacted by increasing protective tariffs, which resulted in the stifling of international trade. These economic trends, along with the collapse of the international banking system, led to the Great Depression. In the midst of this turmoil, new authoritarian regimes in Europe and Asia challenged liberal democracies. The expansionist goals of Italy, Germany, and Japan translated into specific instances of military aggression. The Allied and Axis Powers during World War II engaged in conflicts across the globe including battlegrounds in Europe, North Africa, East Asia, and the Pacific Basin. Immediately following the war, genocide, the systematic destruction of an ethnic or religious group, was established as a crime under international law through the development of the United Nations. Unfortunately, the Holocaust was not the first or last genocide in the twentieth century.

1945-Present: Emergence of the Global Era. The effects of World War II reverberated around the world, intensifying three earlier trends whose effects persisted well into the twenty-first century: decolonization, the Cold War, and globalization. The war initiated the overall decline of European power worldwide and the rise of the United States militarily, economically, and culturally. Participation in the war by colonial subjects fueled nationalist movements that

either forced or placed increasing pressure on European powers to grant independence. The postwar period also witnessed an escalation in hostility between the U.S. and the Soviet Union. Throughout the Cold War, the U.S. and the Soviet Union intervened politically, militarily, and economically in dozens of nations in Asia, the Middle East, Africa, Latin America, and the Caribbean in an effort to protect their strategic interests. More recently, the process of globalization has created the largest world market in history, spreading many cultural practices, ideas, and products around the world.

The Development of Western Political Thought

Students begin the tenth grade course of study with a review of Western political thought. The Western moral and political tradition, which influenced much of the world in the modern period, had its origins in the Bible and in Greco-Roman philosophy. Both Jewish and Christian scriptures informed ethical beliefs, and Greek philosophers, such as Plato and Aristotle, spoke and wrote of citizens' duties to provide for the well-being of the community in the Athenian city-state. Roman legal systems and political organizations were built on Greek ideas and argued that virtue—defined as selfless devotion to the well-being of the civic community—was necessary to protect personal liberty. This unit provides ample opportunity for students to develop their ability to evaluate ideas, debate the legacy of the early philosophers' ideas, and develop their ability to both articulate and defend a particular position through classroom debate, simulations, and multimedia presentations.

While Christian ethical ideas remained well-known throughout the Middle Ages, many Greco-Roman ideas disappeared from intellectual discussion. During the Renaissance, humanist scholars rediscovered many of these Greco-Roman writings in part through contact with Byzantine and Islamic scholarship. Inspired by these writings, “civic humanists” in the early modern period urged citizens to participate in public life, much as Roman philosophers had more than a thousand years earlier. Such participation was necessary, they argued, to prevent tyranny. Civic humanists emphasized virtue and knowledge as ancient philosophers had, but now they often used Christian and Jewish moral and ethical principles as the basis of virtuous behavior.

Civic humanist ideals continued to influence political philosophers during the Enlightenment. Philosophers’ concern for personal liberty and their suspicions about the dangers of tyranny led them to embrace representative governments of limited power as the ideal form of political organization. American, European, Latin American, and Haitian revolutionaries defended their actions using these ideas. Their postrevolutionary constitutions were explicitly written to limit government power and protect the rights of citizens. Students might explore the growth in individual rights in this era, as well as the limitations of these rights to particular groups. In particular, they could consider the paradox between slavery and individual rights through an examination of Enlightenment writings and images.

Democratic Revolutions

The emergence of liberal democratic ideas provides an opportunity for students to engage in primary source analysis, develop further their ability to see connections, and consider questions of historical significance. Students examine political documents to study both the events and the ideas that emerged in the Atlantic world at the beginning of the modern period. Contemporary thinkers in Europe, North America, and Latin America engaged in formal and informal conversations about the Enlightenment writings of philosophers such as John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Catherine the Great, Madame Geoffren, Mary Wollstonecraft, Adam Smith, and Charles-Louis Montesquieu. In addition, the writings of Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and Simon Bolivar help students recognize the leading philosophical and political ideas during this exciting time of socio-cultural and political change.

A consistent theme in European politics in this period was the struggle between monarchical power and the rights and privileges of aristocratic and mercantilist elites. These conflicts intensified as states attempted to pay the costs of centralizing administration and increasing army and naval expenditures through increased taxation. An example of this contest was the Glorious Revolution, when the English Parliament emerged victorious and the authority of the monarch was limited by the rule of law. The American and French Revolutions, on the other hand, overthrew monarchical authority. In North America, colonists issued the Declaration of Independence that asserted all men have “unalienable Rights” that they sought to uphold and protect through a republican form of government. The French Revolution led to the dissolution of

the French monarchy and the establishment of a republic. However, the French Revolution did not live up to its own ideals in the short run and succumbed first to a destructive Terror, then ultimately to despotism and continental war under Napoleon.

Varied connections bound together the Atlantic world as a network to spread revolutionary thinking and activism. With the American and French revolutions serving as models of republican government, former slaves in Haiti, colonial peoples in Latin America, and military and religious elites in Spain and Portugal all participated in revolutionary uprisings that led to constitutional governments. These new governments implemented laws and institutions that echoed principles seen in the Magna Carta and reflected the Enlightenment ideas embodied in the English Bill of Rights, the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, and the United States Constitution and Bill of Rights. The concepts of individual rights under the rule of law and liberal democratic principles brought an end to traditional aristocratic privileges, served as political and economic ideals for these emerging nations, and continued to encourage disfranchised groups in those states to press for greater equality and rights. Students may consider how the universal ideas of the Enlightenment texts continued to be a significant political strategy for the expansion of citizenship rights in liberal democracies during the modern era. To translate these historical concepts to their daily lives, students might create their own Declarations of Rights.

These Atlantic revolutions and the subsequent Napoleonic Wars resulted in the establishment of a new type of political structure, the nation-state. Through the increased networks of communication that emerged in this period, people began to imagine themselves as part of a larger national community. Concepts of national identity and nationalism emerged that bound people together through shared language and culture. Students may examine the ways in which the Congress of Vienna and the Concert of Europe rearranged the map of Europe. Arguments over the definition of citizenship in the nation-state continue into the contemporary period and therefore provide opportunities for students to develop further their own understanding of the rights and responsibilities of citizens.

Industrial Revolutions

As a result of the Industrial Revolution, the center of the world economy shifted to Western Europe. Students learn that its path diverged sharply from that of China and India, which had together accounted for nearly half of the world's manufacturing prior to the rise of industrialization. Some historians have criticized the use of the term "revolution," as the changes brought by industrialization were often gradual and uneven. In a broad global perspective, however, industrialization has arguably been one of the most dramatic transformations in human history, altering patterns of work, settlement, international relations, consumption, family relations, and values.

In addition to its historical significance, the Industrial Revolution also provides rich opportunities for students to develop their geographic and economic literacy.

184 Britain was the first nation to industrialize, benefitting from a number of strengths.
185 Students use a variety of maps to explore Britain’s natural resources, such as
186 navigable rivers and large coal deposits. Students review economic data to see
187 how industrialization generated profits for Great Britain through its role in
188 worldwide trade and from goods produced in its colonies. Profits were reinvested
189 back into production. Industrial techniques soon spread to France, Germany, and
190 the United States as well as the inventions and discoveries of James Watt, Eli
191 Whitney, Henry Bessemer, and Thomas Edison, resulting in technological
192 changes and advances in science. At the same time, students can identify the
193 environmental impact of the Industrial Revolution and discuss the positive and
194 negative consequences of industrialization.

195 The leaders of world empires reacted to these changes in various ways.
196 Russia followed a model of government-sponsored development. In Japan, after
197 overthrowing the Tokugawa dynasty in a coup, the Meiji government rapidly
198 embraced industrialization. Japanese government ministers adapted European
199 techniques with *zaibatsus*, a distinctively native form of business organization in
200 which large family-owned monopolies controlled broad sectors of the economy.
201 Leaders in the Ottoman Empire and China engaged in limited industrialization,
202 but their choices were constrained by the earlier establishment of informal
203 European empires and by resistance from conservative groups within their
204 borders. This accelerated their gradual military decline, which had already begun
205 by the 1700s.

The Industrial Revolution represented a fundamental shift in the production of goods. Large-scale repetitive-motion machines powered by new energy sources such as coal and hydro-energy replaced human and animal energy. Competing for profits, corporations grew substantially as they sponsored continuous innovations in goods and carefully oversaw the system of production. Wage laborers subjected to regimented work conditions in factories rapidly mass-produced inexpensive standardized goods. Industrialization also dramatically changed the way of life for millions of people who were not directly involved in factory work. Miners and plantation workers, for example, were essential to the creation of commodities produced in factories.

While each of these states experienced industrialization in distinctive ways, they also faced some similar experiences. Growing populations increasingly concentrated in urban areas as the disparity between the wealthiest and the poorest grew. At the same time, the standard of living gradually improved throughout the world. Workers protested the rigid time-discipline and poor conditions of factory work. Unions grew, often inspired by new ideologies of socialism, particularly Marxist concepts of inherent class conflict between the profit interests of capitalists and the concerns of laborers.

Industrialization also separated home and work, which had typically been the same in pre-industrial societies. Using relevant primary sources, literature, and classroom simulations, students can get a real sense of the impact of industrialization upon families. Middle-class families began to think of home as a separate sphere for women and children to be protected from the evils of the

industrial environment. Women were discouraged from paid labor, and children were sent to school. In many poorer families, however, women continued to work in the paid labor force, as did their children. Although the mechanized production of both goods and crops dramatically changed life in industrial nations, most of the world continued to engage in subsistence farming to meet basic needs. Students could compare the similarities and differences in the consequences of industrialization in these countries while evaluating the costs and benefits of industrialization. Students can compare and contrast child labor around the world today with child labor in the 1800s. Students may also examine the link in the rise of formal education systems, nationalism, and national identity to the Romantic movement, which included the proliferation of art and literature (for example, the poetry of William Blake and William Wordsworth), social criticism (for example, the novels of Charles Dickens), and music (such as Ludwig van Beethoven).

The Rise of Imperialism and Colonialism

In this unit, students examine the worldwide imperial expansion that was fueled by the industrial nations' demand for natural resources and markets and by their nationalist aspirations. The economic strength of industrialized nations gave them an advantage over nations that engaged in traditional manual production of goods. For much of this period, local manufacturing in regions such as India, China, and Latin America declined dramatically. Some scholars use the label "neo-colonialism" to refer to this situation where many countries, while not

formally colonized, became increasingly dependent on industrialized nations to establish the terms and conditions of international commerce.

The race to secure raw materials spurred European, Japanese, and American imperialism. Tropical products, such as rubber and tea, and other resources for industrial use drove competing nations to claim political, economic, and territorial rights to colonies. Colonizers also justified their conquests by asserting arguments of racial hierarchy and cultural supremacy along with fulfilling a civilizing missionary impulse. Literature, such as Chinua Achebe's *Things Fall Apart*, engages students with this period and deepens the ability of students to understand the era within its own context.

Governments in industrialized nations also viewed overseas expansion as a means to strengthen their own global strategic position. The development of more advanced firearms, transportation, and communications than nonindustrial societies paved the way for a wave of imperialism. Britain, France, and other European nations established colonies throughout Africa and South and Southeast Asia, while the U.S. and Japan did the same around the Pacific Rim, often using local elites and harshly exploiting colonized peoples as laborers despite their strenuous resistance. Indigenous leaders in various colonized regions engaged in serious, protracted resistance to the colonizers, though they were ultimately outmatched technologically. Students demonstrate their understanding of this period—and the different perspectives of both the industrialized and colonized nations—by writing editorials, government position

papers, giving speeches, or creating multimedia documentaries for their classmates.

Although most Latin American nations were technically independent in this era, they often came under the influence of European nations and the United States after accepting large loans to help them develop. Western presence had a drastic impact on the societies of these regions. In noncolonized regions, political and economic problems led to revolutions in Mexico, Russia, and elsewhere with leaders competing over liberal and Marxist visions for their nations. In China, Sun Yat-Sen's Republic of China replaced centuries of dynastic rule and, with great effort, fought off the imperialist aspirations of foreign countries. Students create a chart focusing on the struggle for independence of the colonized regions of the world. Individuals and locations should include Sun-Yat Sen of China, José Martí of Cuba, Menelik I of Abyssinia, and Gandhi of India.

Colonizers introduced new infrastructures, medicines, educational systems, and Western beliefs. Print technology and more rapid transportation aided the growth of Protestantism, Catholicism, Islam, Sikhism, and Buddhism. These technological developments also facilitated the transformation of regional Indian religious traditions into a more unified Hinduism. Christian missionaries made use of colonial institutions and infrastructure to educate and evangelize native peoples, helping to broaden Christian presence around the world. Some European thinkers joined religious beliefs to Social Darwinian ideas about the evolution of races, leading to European efforts to “civilize” native peoples they

perceived as “backward.” They attempted to change practices involving marriage and women’s social roles.

While some colonial peoples converted to European practices, others deeply resented the violent exploitation of their people and the disruption of their traditional beliefs. Nationalist leaders, often educated in European universities, began to use ideologies rooted in the Enlightenment to challenge the injustice of Western and Japanese imperialism. Europeans, in turn, were shaped by their encounters with colonial peoples, often introduced to non-Western religions and systems of thought for the first time. Though the label “globalization” is often restricted to the late twentieth-century, students might explore the ways in which both industrialization and imperialism initiated the process through transport and communication technologies, unprecedented levels of global migration, and accelerating global economic exchange.

Causes and Course of World War I

The Great War, later called World War I, began in 1914 as a result of nationalist tensions in Europe and the subsequent militarization that resulted from clashes between these states over colonial resources and markets. This insecurity led these powers to form alliances, which embroiled the great powers of Europe in a multi-year conflict that included soldiers from throughout the world. Nationalism, alongside a growing militarization of the European powers, created a climate of distrust that eroded the balance of power. At the advent of the war, political leaders who faced social unrest at home saw the war effort as a way to

divert popular criticism and stoke patriotism. To this end, European governments created propaganda aimed at encouraging the civilian population to support total war. To deepen student understanding of the causes of World War I, teachers can divide the class into allied groups based upon the major participants in the war. In their groups, students examine a collection of pre-war propaganda and political cartoons by utilizing one of the many primary-source analysis tools available online to create a newsletter, propaganda poster, or political cartoon.

The war that was to be “over by Christmas” continued as opposing armies on the Western Front settled down to a stalemate through a system of trench warfare in which each side dug in behind a wall of trenches that reached from the North Sea to Switzerland. Using primary sources (in electronic format) as well as literature, such as Erich Maria Remarque’s *All Quiet on the Western Front*, students can come to appreciate the struggles faced by soldiers fighting in the trenches. For three years, the western front moved roughly three miles per year in any one direction. Although the primary battles of World War I took place in Europe, by the end of the conflict, colonial soldiers from Africa and Asia had participated in the war effort alongside soldiers from Australia, New Zealand, and America. Both military and civilian casualties resulted from a war that had many fronts. Technological advancements, such as the machine gun, poison gas, aircraft, and high explosives, allowed for destruction of human life on a scale as yet unknown. However, this war was not limited to the battlefields of Europe. Combat in Western Europe, Eastern Europe, and the Middle East left a lasting mark on these societies that were felt long after the fighting ended. The advent of

total war (targeting civilian populations) mobilized not only the soldiers, but included the European home front and colonial territories where large portions of these economies and societies were focused on combat.

By 1918, 12 million had died and millions more returned home wounded, which was magnified by that year's deadly pandemic of the Spanish Flu. The Ottoman, Austro-Hungarian, and Russian empires had collapsed and in their place, independent states emerged. Before the fighting had ended, Armenians were expelled from Ottoman Turkey and forcefully marched to the Middle Eastern desert. The Young Turk government created a systematic program to exterminate the Armenians as a people, which has come to be known as the Armenian Genocide.

The collapse of the imperial powers that resulted from the Great War led to new political structures, most notably a revolutionary uprising in Russia. In 1917, the ineffectual Czarist leadership was overthrown. The communist Bolsheviks seized power and struggled to create a new form of government that established the political monopoly of the Communist Party and workers' soviets. Students can create a dialogue to compare the view of individuals from two different groups within the revolution.

Effects of World War I

In 1919, the victors of World War I—France, Britain, and the United States—turned toward settling the war, organizing peace, and punishing the losers. President Woodrow Wilson offered in his Fourteen Points his vision of a peaceful

postwar world order based on the principles of national self-determination and free trade, though only some of his principles were embraced by Britain and France in the Treaty of Versailles. The leaders of the victorious countries drafted the treaty, which required the losing powers, particularly Germany, to assume responsibility for starting the war, and to pay the victors reparations through large amounts of currency and land. New nations were created in Eastern Europe, carved from the territories of defunct empires. The Treaty of Versailles also established the mandate system, which granted many of the Allied Powers, including Japan, administrative governance over former territories and colonies of Germany and the Ottoman Empire. Outside of Europe, colonized peoples who had fought for the British and French soon realized that they would not be granted self-determination like the European peoples who gained their own states after the war, and organized nationalist independence movements to oppose the authority of colonial powers. The Balfour Declaration of 1917—and the debate over its meaning—can be introduced as an example of the consequences that stemmed from the legacy of colonialism. Students can deepen their understanding of the treaties that ended World War I and their legacy through simulations that divide the class into representatives from the war’s participants— including victors such as Great Britain, losers such as Germany and the Ottoman Empire, and formerly colonized nations.

The last of Wilson’s Fourteen Points was the creation of a League of Nations in order to promote the continuity of peace. Although Wilson arduously rallied for Congress to join the League, American isolationists were reluctant to enter into

potentially indefinite alliances and thus never consented to join. The American failure to participate undermined the League's effectiveness in implementing its goals.

Europe's economy was weakened as a result of the economic and social costs of World War I and was increasingly supported by American loans. Both during and after the war, worldwide agricultural production increased, leading to falling prices and lack of buying power on the part of rural consumers for manufactured goods. Industrialized nations reacted by increasing protective tariffs, which stifled international trade. These economic trends, along with the collapse of the international banking system, led to the Great Depression, a time when incomes eroded and unemployment increased throughout the world. This economic collapse further undermined liberal democratic regimes and was a major blow to conceptions of the progressive nature of capitalism.

At the end of the war, veterans often came home injured mentally (what is now termed post-traumatic stress disorder) and physically. These men, along with the millions that did not return home, served as a constant reminder of the horrors of modern warfare. With the return of the soldiers, women lost their war industry employment; however, some women experienced political gains through suffrage. People the world over commemorated the war privately and publicly. Individuals and groups reacted to the dislocation they felt by turning to novel cultural expressions and social organizations, such as newly emerging art movements and political parties to assuage the disillusionment that was a result of the first modern war. Artists and authors created counter-cultural art

movements that expressed the disillusionment felt by many. For example, Pablo Picasso and the self-identifying “lost generation” that included Gertrude Stein, Ernest Hemingway, and F. Scott Fitzgerald, among others, represented and documented the cultural shift initiated by the experience of war.

Rise of Totalitarian Governments after World War I

With the collapse of the capitalist market system that caused the Great Depression, alternatives to liberal democracies, such as communism and fascism, emerged as political realities. Students may compare and contrast how these communist and fascist governments responded to the collapse of the capitalist system during the Great Depression through the use of graphic organizers, debates, and position papers.

After the Russian Revolution, communism emerged as an alternative to Western-style capitalism in the Soviet Union. Marxist ideas were put into practice through Lenin’s New Economic Policy. Beginning in 1918, the government established a system of Gulag labor camps in the Soviet Union and Siberia to contain political opposition. After the civil war and the death of Lenin, Joseph Stalin rose to leadership. Stalin’s Five-Year Plans provided a model of state-run development, in direct opposition to capitalism. Stalin’s industrialization plan included forced collectivization of peasant farms, and as a result, led to a massive loss of life. Stalin’s political consolidation led to the further imprisonment and death of many, including wealthy peasants, non-Russians, and members of the Communist Party who were suspected of disloyalty. Students should learn

about the connection between economic policies and political ideologies, including the crushing of workers' strikes. With this background they can also examine the famine in Ukraine that led to the starvation of millions of people; the political purges of party leaders, artists, engineers, and intellectuals; and the show trials of the 1930s. By analyzing examples of socialist realist art (and comparing it to the reality) and reading George Orwell's *Animal Farm*, students can acquire deeper insights into this period.

One point of comparison that some historians have employed to compare transformations in Europe during the interwar years is the concept of totalitarianism, or a centralized state that controls aspects of life through violence and terror. Using this strategy, students can examine the similarities and differences between the political structures of the Soviet Union, Germany, and Italy in the 1930s. In post-war Germany, the Weimar Republic emerged as an example of the implementation of liberal democratic political principles that included new freedoms for men and women. However, with debts of World War I and the Depression, portions of the populous and political establishment were anxious about communists and other radicals and turned to the leadership of Adolf Hitler. Although Hitler's Nazi party never won an outright majority in any German election, he was able to exploit enough fear and uncertainty to gain the position of Chancellor in 1933. Once they had a foothold in government, Hitler and the Nazis consolidated their power by limiting dissent and imprisoning opponents, **homosexuals, the sick and elderly**, Jews, and other "non-Aryans" in concentration camps, while rearming the German military.

In response to both communist and liberal democratic ideologies in Italy, Benito Mussolini's fascists provided a nationalist and militaristic alternative to the individual rights privileged in liberal democracies. The fascists in Italy and the Nazis in Germany established state-driven economies, rearmed their militaries, and legislated gender, religious, and racial hierarchies in the name of an ultra-patriotic nationalism.

As in Italy and Germany, Japan's authoritarian government, increasingly dominated by the military, controlled portions of the economy and furthered imperial ambitions. The expansionist goals of Italy, Germany, and Japan translated into specific instances of military aggression, first in China, then in Europe, and finally in the United States, that drew the Allies into war with these Axis Powers.

Causes and Consequences of World War II

The study of Nazism and Stalinism leads directly to an analysis of World War II and its causes and consequences. The war itself was truly global and included battlefronts in Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Pacific. Historians estimate that 60 million, or three percent of the total population, died as a result of World War II. The massive death toll resulted from the multitude of battlegrounds and soldiers involved in the conflict. Devastation also struck civilian populations as they were swept up in ground campaigns and were victims of bombing.

To become oriented to the leading nations in the conflict, students continue to learn about the German, Italian, and Japanese attempts to expand their empires

in the 1930s. Students should understand the resentment of the German people to the crushing reparations imposed on them by the Treaty of Paris, the rampant inflation and resulting hardships of the German people during the rise and fall of the Weimar Republic, and the apparent economic miracle attributed to the Nazi regime as it prepared for war. In Germany, as Hitler began to stretch his empire toward Austria and Czechoslovakia, Britain and France initially employed a policy of appeasement, while the United States Congress passed a series of “Neutrality Acts” designed to keep the nation on a path of nonintervention. Both continents were entangled in domestic financial crises, and the American populace especially displayed strong isolationist impulses, even convincing Congress to hold investigations about possible malicious business interests that had led the country to enter World War I. Appeasement of Hitler finally came to an end when Germany invaded Poland on September 1, 1939, and World War II began in Europe. By then, Japan, an imperial power that had already colonized Korea in 1910 and occupied Manchuria in 1931, invaded China. In China, Japanese soldiers engaged in a series of battles that led to the death of thousands of civilians, including the horrors of the Rape of Nanking. Once war broke out in Europe, the Japanese took advantage of Hitler’s conquests in Western Europe to take over European colonies in Asia. However, the Japanese saw American power in the Pacific as an obstacle to their imperial plans, leading them, in 1941, to bomb the United States naval base at Pearl Harbor.

Through map study, students should identify which major nations formed the Allied and Axis Powers. In studying the relative fluidity of the Axis nations,

students learn about the significance of the Stalin-Hitler Pact of 1939 and its effects in partitioning Poland and bringing Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia under Soviet control. However, they also identify the pact's breakdown and the subsequent Soviet alliance with the Allied nations.

“This war is a new kind of war...It is warfare in terms of every continent, every island, every sea, every air lane in the world.” As President Franklin Delano Roosevelt’s 1942 statement reveals, soldiers from throughout the world engaged in battle even more mechanized than World War I, with tanks, airplanes, and submarines wreaking massive destruction on military and civilian populations. Hitler’s military machine and *blitzkrieg* warfare conquered large portions of Europe in a short time and expanded the war to include both western and eastern fronts. The bombings of civilians in cities and rural areas brought fear, death, and destruction to populations throughout the world. Through the use of primary sources, such as excerpts from radio programs, newsreel shorts, eyewitness accounts, newspaper articles, and photographs from the period, students can gain a better understanding of the struggles faced by both soldiers and civilians during the war.

With America’s entry to the war, the Allies organized a counteroffensive that mobilized massive civilian resources to combat the Axis powers. The Allies retaliated with land and aerial campaigns that weakened the overstretched Axis. Students may explore the tensions that existed between the Allied powers and how these served as a prelude to the divisions between the West and the Soviet Union in the postwar period.

The war, fought over many years, ended with the collapse of the Axis regimes. Heavy fighting in both Western and Eastern Europe crushed the German military, while the island-to-island skirmishes in the Pacific weakened the Japanese forces, culminating in a heavy bombing campaign of the Japanese home islands. Finally, in August 1945, the United States unleashed its most deadly weapon, the atomic bomb, in Nagasaki and Hiroshima, which killed more than 200,000 people and forced Japan to surrender, ending World War II.

Before and during the worldwide conflict, the Nazis implemented racial policies across Nazi-controlled Europe. These policies drew upon notions of racial hierarchies, also popular among eugenicists. The laws singled out Jews, Slavs, Gypsies, and Jehovah's Witnesses, as well as homosexuals and political activists, and targeted these groups for oppression and state-sanctioned violence in the concentration camps. Jews were specifically targeted and sent to concentration camps where, under the Final Solution, some six million Jews were killed through starvation, mistreatment, and gassing. At the end of the war, the world was forced to acknowledge the devastation inflicted on millions of people and attempted to rebuild societies wracked by war. Immediately following the war, genocide, the systematic destruction of an ethnic or religious group, was established as a crime under international law through the development of the United Nations. Sensitivity and careful planning are needed to bring the history of this period to life for students in a thoughtful and responsible way. The sheer scope, the action (or inaction) of German civilians, and the inhumanity of the Holocaust can be overwhelming to some students. Utilizing memoirs, such as

Elie Weisel's *Night*, teachers can provide students with a deeper and more personal understanding of the genocide, as can the use of carefully selected and scaffolded primary source materials. Students can also conduct oral histories of survivors of the Holocaust (or their family members), or review recorded testimonials of those survivors on DVD or on the Internet. Students can examine the resistance of Jews and others to the Holocaust.

International Developments in the Post-World War II World

One of the most significant effects of World War II was the emergence of the Cold War, which ultimately affected much of the world, including the developing world in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. Students explore the differences between the capitalist-democratic United States and the communist-authoritarian Soviet Union. These differences were apparent before the war, although they did not prevent an alliance against the Axis powers. After the war, hostility increased as the two nations disagreed sharply over plans for postwar Europe, especially Germany. The fragile alliance preserved at the Yalta Conference in February, 1945, between Stalin, Roosevelt, and Churchill disintegrated in the coming months and years. The United States distrusted the Soviet Union after its expansion into Eastern Europe. Both competed to bring non-aligned countries into their respective camps. Through the use of structured primary-source analysis activities, teachers develop student understanding of this period. Students can also develop their critical thinking and oral language in their study of the Cold War by engaging in a Yalta press conference in which the class is

divided into representatives of the United States, the Soviet Union, and Great Britain and members of the press corps.

Employing a variety of primary-source documents, pictures, and maps from the era, students examine the two superpowers' different plans for Europe after the war. The Soviet Union extended its reach into central Europe with the division of Germany and the creation of satellite states in eastern and southeastern Europe. The United States became involved in Western Europe to support the reestablishment of liberal democratic states. It developed the Marshall Plan, a massive American economic recovery plan for Western Europe **which helped to rebuild European economies at the same time that it helped promote create income and jobs at home**, and the Truman Doctrine, which stated American support for people fighting against communist aggression. The Soviet Union viewed these plans as an effort to protect American hegemony in Europe. In response to the formation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), a 1949 military alliance of western European nations supported by the United States, the Soviet Union initiated the Warsaw Pact of 1955, which aimed to protect its eastern European territory and broader sphere of influence. Over time, uprisings in Poland (1956), Hungary (1956), and Czechoslovakia (1968) exposed fractures within the Soviet sphere of influence by revealing insurgent anti-communist sentiment.

The Cold War grew in intensity as the Soviet Union developed atomic weapons in an effort to catch up to the U.S. militarily. A nuclear arms race continued for decades as the superpowers competed over advancements in the

number and delivery mechanisms of nuclear weapons. After a long civil war, communists, led by Chairman Mao Zedong, came to power in China, expanding the geographic scope of the Cold War. The presence of communist China also complicated the earlier bipolar Cold War world, as tensions developed between the two communist powers. Over time, the Cultural Revolution as well as the Tiananmen Square uprising revealed to the outside world the extent of internal dissidence.

Cold War competition spread throughout East and Southeast Asia, the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America. Both superpowers constructed regional alliances in an effort to counter their opponents' power. With the high stakes of nuclear war, the two superpowers engaged in a number of wars by proxy. Using a variety of maps, primary sources, and classroom simulation activities, students learn that throughout the Cold War, the U.S. and the Soviet Union intervened politically, militarily, and economically in dozens of nations in Asia, Africa, Latin America, and the Caribbean in an effort to protect their strategic interests. **Students should understand the economic interests that collided during the cold war and the resulting alliances of different groups of nations. These** The "Third World" interventions intersected with movements for independence and nation-building, creating opportunities for nationalist leaders to improve their condition by playing superpowers against each other. But superpower interventions also complicated internal developments in those regions, compelling leaders or factions to choose sides in the Cold War. Many nations aligned with one or other superpowers and followed their development plans. Beginning with India, a wave of new states

formed throughout Asia and Africa, promising liberal democratic governments
and market economies. Decolonization prompted a wave of migrations from
former colonies to imperial metropolises, or former imperial centers. Britain,
France, and other western European nations became increasingly diverse as
former subjects relocated there permanently in search of economic opportunity.

Cold War conflicts complicated nationalist movements and desires for
independence among European colonies. As industrialized nations grew more
dependent on foreign oil, the Middle East became a central battleground of the
Cold War. But Middle Eastern nations had their own concerns and often tried to
play one superpower against the other. In 1947, the United Nations passed a
partition plan that would have divided Palestine into separate Jewish and Arab
states. When the British Mandate of Palestine expired in 1948, David Ben-Gurion
established the Jewish state of Israel, increasing tensions between Arabs and
the Jewish population. The legacy of the Holocaust certainly shaped world
opinion about Jewish people needing their own state.

After nearly half a century of proxy wars and worldwide tensions that
originated from the Cold War, the Soviet Union collapsed from both internal and
external weaknesses. Economic problems within the nation, an overburdened
military, and dissidents pushing for a larger opening in the infamous “iron curtain”
contributed to the breakup of the Soviet Union. The disintegration of the Soviet
Union spawned several independent republics, reflecting the principles of
national identity and self-determination. To grasp a broad overview of the Cold
War era, students could explore reasons for the emergence of the Cold War,

major developments in the Cold War era, and the intersection between Cold War dynamics and decolonization efforts.

Nation-Building in the Contemporary World

Stretching from the World War II years through the contemporary period, former colonies and dependent nations have embraced different **political and economic systems** ~~models of government~~ in an effort to provide stability and security. Although the regions and people vary drastically, students learn in their last unit that many nations share similar challenges in attempting to unite. For example, as in some Western European countries, the presence of multiple ethnic, linguistic, and cultural groups within the borders of an individual state has influenced nation-building efforts in these regions. Further, many places have experienced civil wars or regional disputes that have led to civilian casualties. Several nations continue to be dictatorships. At the same time, several countries have seen a shift to civilian governments and popular, free, multiparty elections. In this unit, students can engage in a comparative analysis in which they study postcolonial developments in at least two of the following regions: Africa, the Middle East, Latin America, and China. Students can demonstrate their understanding of the contemporary world through multimedia projects, written reports, or structured oral presentations.

Newly independent nations faced many challenges, especially in Africa. These new countries inherited colonial borders that artificially divided some ethnic groups into multiple states. More destructive was the reverse process:

new governments attempted artificially to unify multiple ethnic groups within their inherited colonial borders into nation-states where loyalty centered on the state. In many cases, European nations continued to exercise considerable political and economic influence over former colonies, challenging the autonomy of the new states. Chronic malnutrition and epidemic diseases contributed to the lowest longevity rates in the world. Despite the current low standards of living for most citizens in Sub-Saharan-Africa, many countries contain important natural resources, including petroleum, which has the potential to improve the quality of life for their citizens **as these nations attempt to move beyond colonial economies based on extractive industries, to more balanced economic growth.** One of the greatest challenges to stability in Africa has been the AIDS epidemic, which drained the labor pool and taxed economic resources. Some stable republics exist, however, including Botswana and South Africa, where apartheid gave way to multi-party democracy in the 1990s, though these countries continue to be challenged by an unequal distribution of wealth.

In the Middle East, tensions between Israel and its neighbors remain high, especially over a future Palestinian state and Arab recognition of Israel (two-state solution). Differences within Islam between Sunni and Shia groups over the question of modern cultural practice persist. The emergence of Iraq as the first Arab Shia-controlled nation has complicated regional relations. The fragile political affairs of the area are further aggravated by its strategic importance as a supplier of oil to the industrialized world, the unresolved problems of the displaced Palestinian refugees, the recurrent use of terrorism, and territorial

disputes. Careful study of political and resource maps help students understand the relative location and the geopolitical, cultural, military, and economic significance of such key states as Saudi Arabia, Turkey, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Israel, Kuwait, Iraq, and Iran.

Latin American conflicts have often reflected differences between indigenous people and Mestizos, as well as between leftist and conservative ideologies and economic systems. In the 1980s, several Central American states experienced protracted civil wars, but by the 1990s these conflicts had subsided, though their underlying issues had not been resolved. Some states, such as Costa Rica and Peru, have long-lived stable democracies, draw high numbers of tourists, and successfully engage in globalization. As a case study, students may look to present-day Mexico, a nation greatly shaped by its revolution of 1910-20, and the political, social and economic system that emerged from it. Among Mexico's strengths have been its sense of national identity, relative political stability, and successful attempts at economic development. Students can compare Mexico's experience in an international context, emphasizing its ties to other Latin American nations as well as its complex relationship with the United States, especially in light of the North American Free Trade Agreement. Students might also investigate why the drug trade (and the violence it spawns) is a serious problem in Mexico and several states in South America.

Collectively, the leaders of these countries desire to generate prosperity in a contemporary global economy. Petroleum exports have been a source of economic vitality for Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)

members in the Middle East and Latin America. But many other Latin American and African nations have often been forced to rely on the export of a few raw materials as the basis of their economies, which can also fluctuate in value drastically on the world market. As a result, nations have ended up deeply in debt to foreign and international banks. They have often turned to international financial institutions, such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), for assistance, which generally require their governments to undertake drastic cuts in social services as a condition for receiving loans.

Since the 1980s, much of Asia (particularly China, Singapore, Hong Kong, South Korea, and Japan) has become a notable economic success story. China in particular skyrocketed as a major manufacturer of inexpensive goods, which increasingly included electronics. Many historians and political scientists have debated the degree to which China's **moves towards a market economy** **capitalism-is are** likely to prompt changes in its authoritarian, single-party government. Some economists project that China, along with India, may lead Asia's return as the center of the global economy sometime in the twenty-first century. To understand the full complexity of these new centers **of political and economic** power, students might consider the degree to which governments in these regions support democracy and individual liberties, especially as they seek to confront violence and instability. As students explore future economic trajectories in these regions, they could consider the relationship between capitalist economies and varying degrees of democratic forms of government.

**Economic Integration and Contemporary Revolutions in Information,
Technology, and Communications**

World War II accelerated the trend of globalization, the freer and faster movement of people, ideas, capital, and resources across borders. This was seen in transnational developments such as the formation of international organizations such as the United Nations, which attempted to create a forum for nations to resolve their differences and to work collaboratively on global issues. For example, the United Nations worked to establish universal standards for human rights and became a forum for women's and civil rights activists. Knowledge of scientific and medical breakthroughs is spread worldwide, with international efforts to address problems of disease, natural disasters, and environmental degradation.

Economic globalization took the form of multinational corporations and international financial institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which supported loans for development and endorsed the principle of free trade. Regional trading blocs also developed, most notably in Europe and later in North America. Key to economic globalization was the development of communications technology that enabled financial information and funds to move easily. New technologies also facilitated the spread of consumer products and popular film, television, advertising, and other media around the globe. New economic opportunities and liberalized immigration laws prompted the revival of global migration from the 1960s and accelerated global economic exchange. Global

consumption patterns created homogenized cultural experiences in the global cities that sprang up around the world; for example, critics assert that the “McDonaldization” of the world effectively Americanizes diverse cities. In addition, critics point out negative aspects of globalization, pointing to environmental concerns, the impact on child labor, women’s rights and other issues. Using cost-benefit analysis, students examine the differential impact of globalization by dramatizing a mock Congressional hearing on NAFTA, including roles for American, Canadian, and Mexican business owners, farmers, and workers.

Globalization also contributed to breakthroughs in medical and scientific technology, which has improved average health and longevity worldwide. Health problems did not disappear, however. Disease and mortality worldwide remained a function of location and financial resources, with the poorest people—typically in Africa and parts of Asia—facing the most intractable problems. Ironically, other health problems, such as obesity and heart disease, were greatest in the most prosperous nations. ~~where overabundance of food rather than scarcity was the greater challenge.~~ As the twenty-first century unfolded, researchers, international aid organizations and intergovernmental groups continued to work to address a variety of health challenges worldwide.

See Appendix A for additional discussion of these points.

History—Social Science Content Standards

Grade Ten

World History, Culture, and Geography: The Modern World

10.1 Students relate the moral and ethical principles in ancient Greek and Roman philosophy, in Judaism, and in Christianity to the development of Western political thought.

1. Analyze the similarities and differences in Judeo-Christian and Greco-Roman views of law, reason and faith, and duties of the individual.
2. Trace the development of the Western political ideas of the rule of law and illegitimacy of tyranny, using selections from Plato's *Republic* and Aristotle's *Politics*.
3. Consider the influence of the U.S. Constitution on political systems in the contemporary world.

10.2 Students compare and contrast the Glorious Revolution of England, the American Revolution, and the French Revolution and their enduring effects worldwide on the political expectations for self-government and individual liberty.

1. Compare the major ideas of philosophers and their effects on the democratic revolutions in England, the United States, France, and Latin America (e.g., John Locke, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Simón Bolívar, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison).
2. List the principles of the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights (1689), the American Declaration of Independence (1776), the French Declaration

of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (1789), and the U.S. Bill of Rights (1791).

3. Understand the unique character of the American Revolution, its spread to other parts of the world, and its continuing significance to other nations.
4. Explain how the ideology of the French Revolution led France to develop from constitutional monarchy to democratic despotism to the Napoleonic empire.
5. Discuss how nationalism spread across Europe with Napoleon but was repressed for a generation under the Congress of Vienna and Concert of Europe until the Revolutions of 1848.

10.3 Students analyze the effects of the Industrial Revolution in England, France, Germany, Japan, and the United States.

1. Analyze why England was the first country to industrialize.
2. Examine how scientific and technological changes and new forms of energy brought about massive social, economic, and cultural change (e.g., the inventions and discoveries of James Watt, Eli Whitney, Henry Bessemer, Louis Pasteur, Thomas Edison).
3. Describe the growth of population, rural to urban migration, and growth of cities associated with the Industrial Revolution.
4. Trace the evolution of work and labor, including the demise of the slave trade and the effects of immigration, mining and manufacturing, division of labor, and the union movement.

5. Understand the connections among natural resources, entrepreneurship, labor, and capital in an industrial economy.
6. Analyze the emergence of capitalism as a dominant economic pattern and the responses to it, including Utopianism, Social Democracy, Socialism, and Communism.
7. Describe the emergence of Romanticism in art and literature (e.g., the poetry of William Blake and William Wordsworth), social criticism (e.g., the novels of Charles Dickens), and the move away from Classicism in Europe.

10.4 Students analyze patterns of global change in the era of New Imperialism in at least two of the following regions or countries: Africa, Southeast Asia, China, India, Latin America, and the Philippines.

1. Describe the rise of industrial economies and their link to imperialism and colonial-ism (e.g., the role played by national security and strategic advantage; moral issues raised by the search for national hegemony, Social Darwinism, and the missionary impulse; material issues such as land, resources, and technology).
2. Discuss the locations of the colonial rule of such nations as England, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Russia, Spain, Portugal, and the United States.
3. Explain imperialism from the perspective of the colonizers and the colonized and the varied immediate and long-term responses by the people under colonial rule.

4. Describe the independence struggles of the colonized regions of the world, including the roles of leaders, such as Sun Yat-sen in China, and the roles of ideology and religion.

10.5 Students analyze the causes and course of the First World War.

1. Analyze the arguments for entering into war presented by leaders from all sides of the Great War and the role of political and economic rivalries, ethnic and ideological conflicts, domestic discontent and disorder, and propaganda and nationalism in mobilizing the civilian population in support of "total war."
2. Examine the principal theaters of battle, major turning points, and the importance of geographic factors in military decisions and outcomes (e.g., topography, waterways, distance, climate).
3. Explain how the Russian Revolution and the entry of the United States affected the course and outcome of the war.
4. Understand the nature of the war and its human costs (military and civilian) on all sides of the conflict, including how colonial peoples contributed to the war effort.
5. Discuss human rights violations and genocide, including the Ottoman government's actions against Armenian citizens.

10.6 Students analyze the effects of the First World War.

1. Analyze the aims and negotiating roles of world leaders, the terms and influence of the Treaty of Versailles and Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen

Points, and the causes and effects of the United States's rejection of the League of Nations on world politics.

2. Describe the effects of the war and resulting peace treaties on population movement, the international economy, and shifts in the geographic and political borders of Europe and the Middle East.

3. Understand the widespread disillusionment with prewar institutions, authorities, and values that resulted in a void that was later filled by totalitarians.

4. Discuss the influence of World War I on literature, art, and intellectual life in the West (e.g., Pablo Picasso, the "lost generation" of Gertrude Stein, Ernest Hemingway).

10.7 Students analyze the rise of totalitarian governments after World War I.

1. Understand the causes and consequences of the Russian Revolution, including Lenin's use of totalitarian means to seize and maintain control (e.g., the Gulag).

2. Trace Stalin's rise to power in the Soviet Union and the connection between economic policies, political policies, the absence of a free press, and systematic violations of human rights (e.g., the Terror Famine in Ukraine).

3. Analyze the rise, aggression, and human costs of totalitarian regimes (Fascist and Communist) in Germany, Italy, and the Soviet Union, noting especially their common and dissimilar traits.

10.8 Students analyze the causes and consequences of World War II.

1. Compare the German, Italian, and Japanese drives for empire in the 1930s, including the 1937 Rape of Nanking, other atrocities in China, and the Stalin-Hitler Pact of 1939.
 2. Understand the role of appeasement, nonintervention (isolationism), and the domestic distractions in Europe and the United States prior to the outbreak of World War II.
 3. Identify and locate the Allied and Axis powers on a map and discuss the major turning points of the war, the principal theaters of conflict, key strategic decisions, and the resulting war conferences and political resolutions, with emphasis on the importance of geographic factors.
 4. Describe the political, diplomatic, and military leaders during the war (e.g., Winston Churchill, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, Emperor Hirohito, Adolf Hitler, Benito Mussolini, Joseph Stalin, Douglas MacArthur, Dwight Eisenhower).
 5. Analyze the Nazi policy of pursuing racial purity, especially against the European Jews; its transformation into the Final Solution; and the Holocaust that resulted in the murder of six million Jewish civilians.
 6. Discuss the human costs of the war, with particular attention to the civilian and military losses in Russia, Germany, Britain, the United States, China, and Japan.
- 10.9 Students analyze the international developments in the post-World World War II world.
1. Compare the economic and military power shifts caused by the war, including the Yalta Pact, the development of nuclear weapons, Soviet

- 914 control over Eastern European nations, and the economic recoveries of
915 Germany and Japan.
- 916 2. Analyze the causes of the Cold War, with the free world on one side and
917 Soviet client states on the other, including competition for influence in
918 such places as Egypt, the Congo, Vietnam, and Chile.
- 919 3. Understand the importance of the Truman Doctrine and the Marshall Plan,
920 which established the pattern for America's postwar policy of supplying
921 economic and military aid to prevent the spread of Communism and the
922 resulting economic and political competition in arenas such as Southeast
923 Asia (i.e., the Korean War, Vietnam War), Cuba, and Africa.
- 924 4. Analyze the Chinese Civil War, the rise of Mao Tse-tung, and the
925 subsequent political and economic upheavals in China (e.g., the Great
926 Leap Forward, the Cultural Revolution, and the Tiananmen Square
927 uprising).
- 928 5. Describe the uprisings in Poland (1952), Hungary (1956), and
929 Czechoslovakia (1968) and those countries' resurgence in the 1970s and
930 1980s as people in Soviet satellites sought freedom from Soviet control.
- 931 6. Understand how the forces of nationalism developed in the Middle East,
932 how the Holocaust affected world opinion regarding the need for a Jewish
933 state, and the significance and effects of the location and establishment of
934 Israel on world affairs.
- 935 7. Analyze the reasons for the collapse of the Soviet Union, including the
936 weakness of the command economy, burdens of military commitments,

and growing resistance to Soviet rule by dissidents in satellite states and the non-Russian Soviet republics.

8. Discuss the establishment and work of the United Nations and the purposes and functions of the Warsaw Pact, SEATO, NATO, and the Organization of American States.

10.10 Students analyze instances of nation-building in the contemporary world in at least two of the following regions or countries: the Middle East, Africa, Mexico and other parts of Latin America, and China.

1. Understand the challenges in the regions, including their geopolitical, cultural, military, and economic significance and the international relationships in which they are involved.
2. Describe the recent history of the regions, including political divisions and systems, key leaders, religious issues, natural features, resources, and population patterns.
3. Discuss the important trends in the regions today and whether they appear to serve the cause of individual freedom and democracy.

10.11 Students analyze the integration of countries into the world economy and the information, technological, and communications revolutions (e.g., television, satellites, computers).